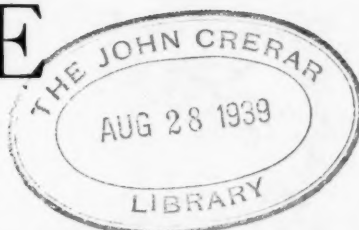


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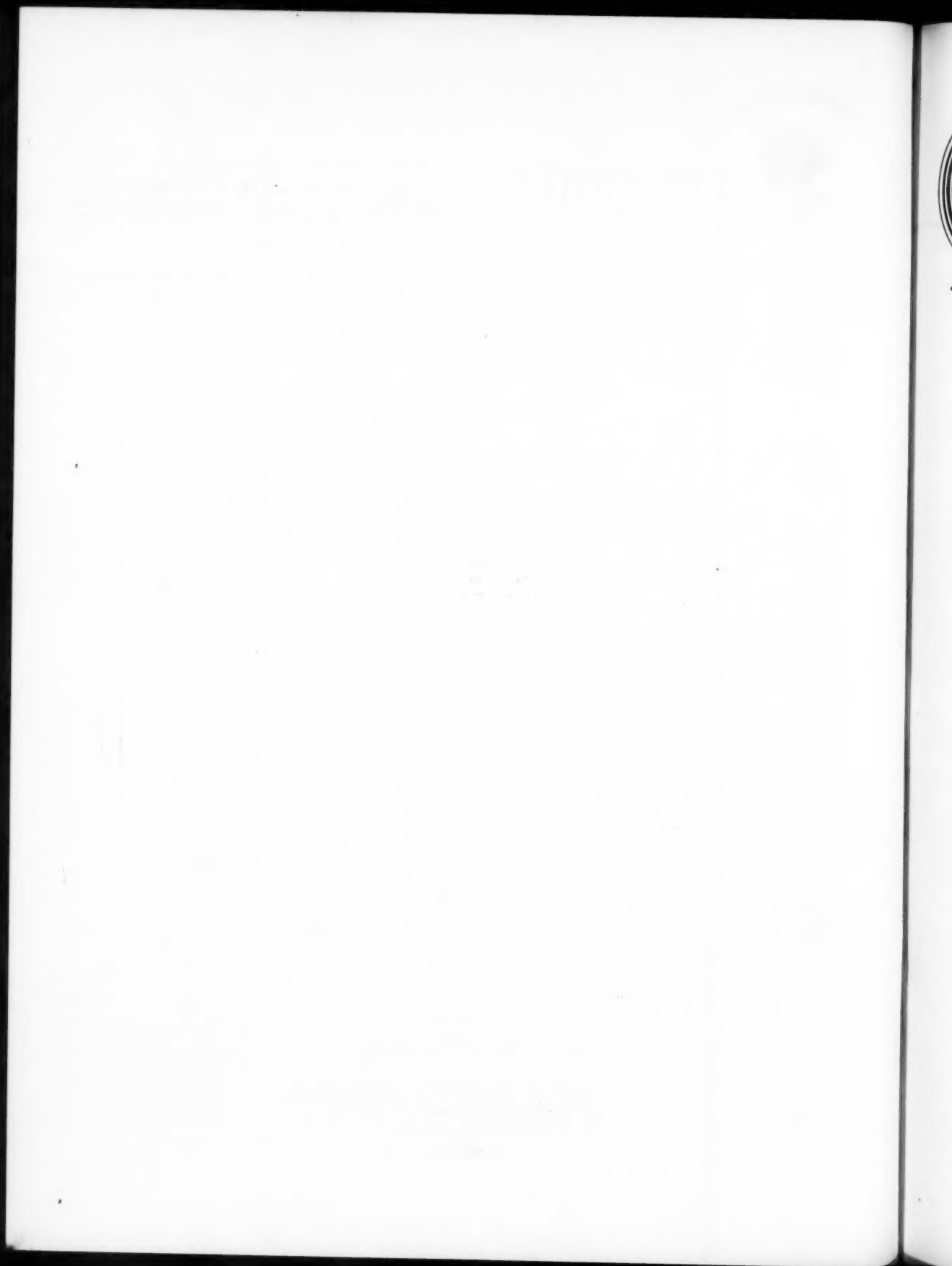
Monthly News Summary



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# THE CHILD

# MONTHLY NEWS SUMMARY

Volume 4, Number 1

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## CHILDREN'S BUREAU

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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

FRANCES PERKINS

SECRETARY



## GENERAL CHILD WELFARE

### A MUSEUM FOR CHILDREN

By MRS. WILLIAM L. GARRISON, 3D, CURATOR-IN-CHIEF,  
BROOKLYN CHILDREN'S MUSEUM, BROOKLYN, N. Y.

Not long ago a young second-generation Rumanian boy, Alexander, wrote: "A hammer is a very useful instrument for a lonesome boy to carry. For a while it was my only means of obtaining companionship." He was describing the loneliest, most dangerous period in his life. Fortunately, however, he discovered the Brooklyn Children's Museum. Minerals fascinated him and he began a concentrated study of them in the exhibition room and in the laboratory. He stated:

A new world has been opened to me. I saw crystals whose beauty and delicacy could not be surpassed by man's genius. I understood the formations of rock. I could distinguish one mineral from another. But most of all, I had found a wonderful substitute for friends. So, by using my hammer, I pried specimens from their natural surroundings and built up a collection. I found their conversation even more interesting than that of people. They told me things they never bothered to tell others. I have said that minerals are my substitute for friends. Yet, while they were acting in that capacity, I made many friends among other collectors, in school and elsewhere.

Alexander is only one of thousands of boys and girls who are finding the children's museum not only a workshop, a laboratory, and a storehouse of objects, but also a refuge where they can come to work out the solution of their problems, social as well as scientific. It is this social emphasis, closely allied with its educational aims, which is largely responsible for the unique place now being filled by children's museums throughout the world.

It was in December 1899 that the first children's museum opened its doors to the public in an old mansion of Brooklyn. Considerable thought and effort on the part of a great many people preceded this event. The idea had been conceived by the Curator of Fine Arts of the Brooklyn Museum, Professor William Henry Goodyear, while visiting Paris where he had seen some remarkable biological charts and models. These, he thought, should be placed at the disposal of all teachers of biology, and he proposed that some of these visual materials be purchased and a "children's museum" be established.

Thus the earliest conception of usefulness of such a museum was to aid the teacher.

The community became interested in the idea and someone suggested that the excess material that the Brooklyn Museum had in storage and would not wish to place in its magnificent new building could form a nucleus for the children's museum. This idea infuriated the citizens of Brooklyn. They stated clearly and emphatically that what was not good enough for adults must be far less suitable for children, and that their children would have the best or nothing at all. It was with this high standard in mind that the first collections were gathered, including some of Emile Deyrolle's models and charts, many of which are still being used.

Teachers soon began to arrive with their classes, grateful for any help which the museum might offer. Visual materials in the school program were still considered a revolutionary innovation if they were used at all, but many teachers found it difficult to cover everything in the school syllabus, and those who were not trained in nature study were especially glad to have the museum take over this part of their teaching program. The contribution made by the museum to the school was recognized, but something else began to happen. Children wandered into the museum after school hours and on Saturdays. They were interested in the exhibits and they asked hundreds of questions. The docents in charge found their hands full and instituted story-telling hours and simple museum games, all of which were correlated with the visual material on display.

Thus a new type of museum began its long and effective educational history. Today the conception of a children's museum is not restricted to one of assisting the teacher. It must be an alert, progressive museum for children. The young people who frequent its halls, driven by some inner urge to discover the mysteries of the world in which they find themselves, are the center of attention. The energies of the staff are directed toward the

exhibition of material at the proper eye level for children. Objects are selected with consideration of children's visual needs and are displayed clearly and logically with scientifically accurate labels in language that children can understand. Activities in which the individual may take part



THIS LITTLE BOY IS INTERESTED IN MAKING INDIAN APPARATUS. HE BELONGS TO THE INDIAN CLUB.

as he chooses are carried on in most of the exhibition rooms, and courses of study are mapped out in a variety of subjects for those seriously intent on the acquisition of knowledge.

The second children's museum made its appearance when the Boston Children's Museum opened in 1914. This also utilized an old mansion in a park. In 1925 Indianapolis followed the example of Brooklyn and Boston. Hartford began a children's museum in 1927 and New Haven, in 1929. There are now in the United States approximately 16 children's museums, housed in buildings of their own, and more than 20 organized as a part of larger, adult museums.

Most children's museums have emphasized natural science in their collections and activities, just as did Brooklyn in the early days, but in recent years there has been an increasing demand for material in the social studies and in a number of places, notably Boston and Chicago, successful children's museums have been conducted solely in the field of art. The underlying principles upon which children's museums are founded are in no sense limited to one particular area of subject matter. They embrace, instead, a whole series of educational techniques, which can be applied in part to other kinds of educational institutions.

What is it, then, that makes a children's museum different from a school or a kindergarten or a recreation center, or from another type of museum, for that matter? The answer is not a simple one. It lies in a combination of elements which, fused together, create the spirit that makes a children's museum. It is found in the selection of objects and other visual aids. It is influenced by the physical techniques of installation, lighting, and labels. Most of all, it is dependent upon the way in which the child is introduced to this material.

There is only one rule in the Brooklyn Children's Museum. If a person wishes to handle anything he must first wash his hands. Aside from this logical precaution there are no coercive



IN THE NEW ANIMAL ROOM.

measures, nothing to hinder or limit the voluntary search for knowledge on the part of the thousand or more children who daily frequent the two old mansions that house the museum. A boy or girl may come into the museum with no feeling of restraint, assured that any serious absorption which he may find in one room or another, will be uninterrupted by an adult. If he wants to ask questions, they will be answered intelligently and clearly or he will be directed to the proper place to find the answer. If he cannot quite understand the objects in the cases, there will be others which he can handle and scrutinize more closely. Everywhere in the museum he will be given source materials with which to work. He will learn to distinguish between the real thing and the copy.



He will begin to create values in his own mind and develop a critical sense which will serve him in later years.

Everywhere the interests of the child take first place. Adults must remain in the background. This does not mean that the child is given an unbalanced idea of his own importance for always there are present those hundreds of other children with whom he must work in harmony and mutual helpfulness. He soon learns why he must be considerate of others.

A sense of independence and responsibility comes sooner or later to every child who visits



THESE BOYS ARE ON A FIELD TRIP WITH AN INSTRUCTOR LOOKING FOR BIRDS THROUGH FIELD GLASSES.

museums, and because of it there is not the need for the usual number of guards or the occasion for disciplinary measures which so frequently arises in the school and in the recreation center. In a children's museum young people do not come just to pass the time: That is, not after the first visit or two. Instead, they come under some compulsion to learn about their world. "What is the earth made of?" "Who lived here before the white man?" "Why do penguins live in the Antarctic?" "What is a mammal?" "I want to draw." "I want to paint." "May I model a horse?" "What do you feed a snake?" "We're discussing radio-activity today, but no visitors are allowed unless they know enough." "My lecture in the science club today is on the endocrinology of human beings." "If you want to join the microscope club, you have to make a piece of equipment first, and learn the parts of one, too." "We're going to learn how to smoke out a swarm of bees today." "If you want to study stamps, you have to know your geography--and your

history, too!" "The Indian Club is making Plains Indian breastplates." "This is my tenth airplane model and they're all different." "Will you show us how to make photomicrographs?" "When is the next geography game?"

This is the sort of thing one hears around the Brooklyn Children's Museum almost any afternoon after school hours or Saturday. The majority work on individual projects of one kind or another, a course of study, a piece of scientific equipment, a topographical map, or a work of art. Sometimes they take part in a museum game, or join one of the clubs, or go on a field trip. Although it is believed that individual work is most sound educationally because it removes the forced competition found in the classroom, group activities are encouraged for their social value. However, adult-organized and controlled clubs are not tolerated. Clubs must be the creation of the children and must grow out of the natural interests of the group. So the youngsters write their own constitutions, make their own rules, plan the programs, and deliver the lectures. This is as true for the 6- to 10-year-old children in the Bee Club as for the older boys in the Pick and Hammer Club, which is open to advanced mineralogists with admission by examination only. Museum staff members stand by to give advice when solicited and to help solve some of the major difficulties.

There is a lecture division which provides free educational motion pictures every afternoon at 4 o'clock and at 11, 2, and 4 o'clock on Saturdays. On some holidays the motion pictures are repeated every hour to take care of the crowds.

A small library of about 15,000 volumes, relating mostly to the natural sciences, history, geography, and ethnology, is a popular place. Children come for help in their school work or to learn more about some object they have seen in an exhibition case, or just to read for pleasure. On sunny days a truck of books is taken out into the park where a branch library operates under a huge umbrella. The library is like the nerve center of the whole museum, and it is one of the first resources the children learn to use.

Some years ago, it became apparent that the Brooklyn museum was outgrowing its quarters. To meet this problem the loan division was created. A group of friends raised \$10,000, which has kept

it going for almost 20 years. There are now about 6,000 exhibits prepared for travel, including natural-history specimens, dolls from all over the world, industrial charts, miniature dioramas, ethnological material, and about 25,000 mounted pictures. All these are fully labeled, and most of them are boxed in cases of plain, varnished wood and glass. They are meant to be handled, and in this way some 4,000,000 school children a year have their lessons illuminated and their interest stimulated by actual contact with objects and pictures. A small truck carries the loans to schools, libraries, and summer day camps. Individual children are also allowed to borrow cases of shells, minerals, birds, and insect-life histories. The only qualification for the children is life membership in the museum at 10 cents (which includes a button and a certificate) and enough knowledge of the subject to pass a simple test. Rarely are the children responsible for any breakage.

School service is also an important part of the museum program. Every school day from 9 a.m. to 3 p.m. classes stream into the museum. They come by appointment only, and their program has been planned months in advance. Care is taken to provide the best motion pictures or the best lantern-slide lecture to illustrate the subject being studied that day in school. Activity programs are arranged, and objects are placed in the hands of young students so that they may further understand the phenomena at hand. An attempt is also made beforehand to determine the purpose of the museum visit--whether it is to introduce a completely new subject, to supplement what is being taken up in school, or to serve as final review of what has already been completed in the classroom.

The Brooklyn Children's Museum is maintained by the city of New York, which also owns the build-

ings and land. It is operated, however, as a unit in the Department of Museums of the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences, and all the collections, educational equipment, and material come from private sources. The museum is open every day in the year except Christmas and New Year's, and admission is always free. It is a public institution and belongs to the children of Brooklyn--of all New York, in fact--for there is no other children's museum in the metropolitan area.

For many years we in the United States have believed in education for our children. In more recent times, we have become more and more conscious of their physical welfare. There is something else we must not neglect, if we wish to build a strong, democratic nation. We must look to the social development of our boys and girls. The molding of character takes place chiefly during leisure hours when children are unrestrained in their activity. It is at this critical moment that the museum makes its particular contribution, a contribution which will have a permanent effect upon young minds because it gives them real and vital things with which to work.

Schools provide children with the necessary tools of language and arithmetic and supply them with facts about history, geography, and, perhaps, science. Recreation centers fulfill the physical need for play activities and divert young people from harmful leisure-time pursuits. The museum designed especially for children, however, puts into the hands of boys and girls the means by which they will learn to face the world--a craving for scientific truth, a sense of social responsibility, and independence of thought. Its power lies in the fact that children come without coercion or sugar-coated inducements, and yet they study as hard or harder than when they are in school.

#### MUSEUM FACILITIES FOR CHILDREN

*Loan exhibits for schools* Some museums have been established mainly for the purpose of lending exhibits to schools. Of this type is the St. Louis School Museum, started about 1905 with exhibits from the World's Fair. Material for

use in the regular classroom work is requisitioned by the teachers and delivered weekly to schools. In Detroit the music teacher may obtain from the museum a scene from the opera the children are studying; the history teacher may have pictures of



Roman aqueducts or Greek temples sent to her classroom. Cleveland, also, is among the cities having museums controlled by the Board of Education, which lend material to schools. In Pittsburgh the Board of Education makes an annual appropriation to the Carnegie Museum for the collection, casing, and maintenance of natural-science loan materials for schools and for other work with children. (Peters, Rupert: *Free Services Offered Children by Museums and Art Galleries. Elementary School Journal*, vol. 35, nos. 1 and 2 (September and October 1934), pp. 32-41 and 123-130.)

*Museum of Science, Buffalo*

The fifth, sixth, and seventh grade children of Buffalo, N. Y., make annual visits to the Museum of Science. By carefully controlled experiments it has been determined that the children who have had, a few days before visiting the museum, a half-hour reading lesson on the subject to be observed at the museum, learn more from the exhibits than do children without this preparation, and more than children receiving a formal 15-minute lecture by one of the docents on the museum staff. (Melton, Arthur W., et al: *Experimental Studies of the Education of Children in a Museum*

of Science. American Association of Museums, New Series, No. 15, Washington, 1936.)

*Field Museum, Chicago*

Through the Raymond Foundation the Field Museum of Natural History in Chicago sends lecturers with lantern slides to schools and conducts children on tours of the museum. Free motion pictures and stories on natural history are available. The activities of the Raymond Foundation are correlated with the curriculum provided by the Chicago Board of Education. (*School and Society*, vol. 46, no. 1179 (July 31, 1937), pp. 135-36.)

*Duluth Children's Museum*

The Duluth Children's Museum was started in an empty school room. The equipment consisted of three tables, a few packing boxes, and a round exhibit case. The director installed Mexican, Indian, and South American material belonging to her and to the art supervisor. The next year the Board of Education took over the project, added a second room, and paid the director for part-time services. (Wing, Mabel M.: *A Children's Museum Is Started. Museum News*, vol. 10, no. 10 (Nov. 15, 1932), p. 8.)

## THE EIGHTH PAN AMERICAN CHILD CONGRESS<sup>1</sup>

San José, capital of the Republic of Costa Rica, will be the meeting place for the Eighth Pan American Child Congress, October 12-19, 1939.<sup>2</sup>

Official delegates will be appointed by the Governments of the countries represented in the Congress. Members of the Congress will include delegates of child-welfare institutions and persons concerned with child-welfare problems. All

members may present reports on the subjects included in the program by the Organizing Committee and may take part in the discussion of the papers presented. Reports by delegates from countries other than Costa Rica must be received at the office of the Secretary General in San José at least 2 weeks before the opening of the Congress. The official languages of the Congress will be Spanish, English, French, and Portuguese.

*Agenda of the Congress*

The Congress will be divided into six sections: I, Medical pediatric problems; II, Surgical pediatric problems; III,

<sup>1</sup>Translated from official correspondence and from *La Gaceta-Diario Oficial*, San José, April 23, 1939.

<sup>2</sup>The Seventh Pan American Child Congress was held in Mexico City in 1935.

Child hygiene and eugenics; IV, Education; V, Social welfare; and VI, Law, legislation, and sociology.

The list of 62 official subjects and recommended subjects for the consideration of the sections includes the following in the field of maternal and child health and welfare: Vitamin deficiencies in children in the tropics; injuries at birth: their prevention, diagnosis, and treatment; control of tuberculosis in childhood; prophylactic measures in the control of poliomyelitis; organization of services for mothers and children in a rural area; training of nurses and visitors in services for mothers and children. Among the topics under education, social welfare, and law are: Effect of motion pictures on the moral development of children and adolescents; organization of vocational education; supervision and

guidance of minors discharged from social-welfare institutions; aid to unmarried expectant mothers who are minors; coordination of maternal and child-welfare services; child welfare in rural communities--its organization; reforms to be proposed for facilitating adoption; and measures for the prevention of juvenile delinquency.

The opening formal session will be presided over by the President of Costa Rica or his representative. The Secretary of Public Health will make the address of welcome to the delegates and members of the Congress, and the Secretary General will read a report.

At the formal closing session the Secretary of Education will give an address and the Secretary General will read the resolutions passed by the Congress at the final official session.

#### NEWS AND READING NOTES

*Popular pamphlets on social problems issued*

The first two numbers have been published of a series of pamphlets designed to present reliable nontechnical information on social problems of general interest:

Depression Pioneers, by David Cushman Coyle (Works Progress Administration, Washington, 1939, 19 pp.).

Rural Youth, by David Cushman Coyle (National Youth Administration, Washington, 1939, 35 pp.).

Large, clear type and ample margins add to the readability of these pamphlets. Depression Pioneers is illustrated with black and white sketches and Rural Youth, with pictorial graphs. Each pamphlet contains a selected bibliography designed to carry the reader whose interest has been aroused by the pamphlet deeper into the subject.

*Negro education and the Supreme Court discussed*

The Supreme Court decision in the case of *Gaines v. University of Missouri*, given December 12, 1938, ruling that the University of Missouri should admit Gaines as a student in its law school, is discussed in editorial comment in *Journal of Negro Education*, vol. 8, no. 2 (April 1939), which also contains related articles.

The editorial concludes that the Missouri decision affords a real opportunity for Negroes to improve the educational opportunity now provided in Negro separate schools on all levels, although the decision refers specifically to higher education.

Rufus E. Clement contributes an article, Legal Provisions for Graduate and Professional Instruction for Negroes in States Operating Separate School Systems.

An article by Henry J. McGuinn, The Courts and Equality of Educational Opportunity, discusses the Supreme Court decision in relation to educational opportunity for Negroes and legal action in Maryland.

*Bulletins of the Association for Childhood Education*

Several bulletins of interest to those dealing with young children have been compiled or revised recently by various committees of the Association for Childhood Education (1201 Sixteenth St. NW., Washington, D.C.). These include a revised edition of A Bibliography of Books for Young Children (Washington, 1939, 71 pp., 50 cents); a revised edition of Equipment

and Supplies for Nursery Schools, Kindergartens, and Primary Grades (Washington, 1939, 48 pp., 50 cents); and A Study of Reading Workbooks (Washington, 1939, 40 pp., 35 cents). This last pamphlet was prepared to provide a basis for further study

and analysis of the function, organization, use, and content of reading workbooks and their contribution or lack of contribution to child growth in the light of what is known about child development and the learning process.

#### BOOK AND PERIODICAL NOTES (General Child Welfare)

A GIRL GROWS UP, by Ruth Fedder, Ed.D. Whittlesey House, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York. 1939. 235 pp. \$1.75.

This book was written for girls themselves in an attempt to answer some of the questions frequently asked the author, as guidance counselor in a junior high school, in her conferences with adolescents. The aim of the book is to give information about certain fundamentals of behavior so that girls can establish and evaluate their own points of view.

Problems of personality development and emotional maturity are dealt with in simple terms. Against this background are discussed relationships within the family and among boys and girls, vocational adjustment, and a philosophy of life.

SEVEN LEAN YEARS, by T. J. Woofter, Jr., and Ellen Winston. University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, N. C. 1939. 187 pp. \$1.50.

In this book the authors have given consideration to rural problems arising during and since the depression in terms of human elements as well as in terms of production, prices, and markets. To quote from their own words:

They have come to an abiding conviction that it is important to the national welfare that positive programs of agrarian and social reform be vigorously pursued in order that misery and want

will not accumulate again to the same extent as in the past. At the risk of being accused of over-emphasizing distress, they have, therefore, tried to make plain the causes of rural poverty and its implications in the complex pattern of our national life.

The whole book has a bearing on rural child life, and the authors have devoted two chapters in particular to the opportunities for health, education, and permanent employment of youth.

CHILD TRAINING AND PARENT EDUCATION; references to material in recent books, by Lucile Reiner Stebbing and Caroline Shurtleff Hughes. Second edition revised. H. W. Wilson Co., New York. 1939. 83 pp. 90 cents.

This bibliography was first published 8 years ago after having been worked out and carefully tested in the Sociology Division of the Public Library, Washington, D. C. Because of the growth in volume of the material dealing with parents and children and of changes in the character of the material, such as shifting the emphasis from training the children to educating the parent, the authors have revised the subject headings, added new titles, and omitted out-of-date ones. Among the 102 classified headings are Adolescence, Foster Child, and Nutrition.

The Children's Bureau does not distribute the publications to which reference is made in *The Child* except those issued by the Bureau itself. Please write to the publisher or agency mentioned for all others.

# MATERNAL, INFANT, AND CHILD HEALTH

## PLAN FOR RECORDING CERTAIN DATA CONCERNING STILLBIRTHS, LIVE BIRTHS, AND NEONATAL DEATHS IN HOSPITALS

BY ETHEL C. DUNHAM, M. D., DIRECTOR,  
DIVISION OF RESEARCH IN CHILD DEVELOPMENT, U. S. CHILDREN'S BUREAU

Many reports have appeared in the medical literature giving certain data in regard to stillbirths and neonatal deaths in hospitals. It is, however, often difficult to compare the data from one hospital with the data from another, either because they are incomplete or because the inclusions under the terms stillbirth, live birth, and neonatal death are not uniform.

With a view to obtaining more exact and comparable data, the Children's Bureau has prepared a form for recording births that occur in hospitals according to birth weight and to age at death or age at discharge from the hospital. The definitions of a stillbirth and the period of gestation of stillborn infants to be included in the recording are those recommended for use by the American Public Health Association (fig. 1).

Space is provided on the form to record birth weight for all live births and all stillbirths that occur in the hospital. Birth weights are to be recorded in groups of 500 grams each.<sup>1</sup>

Stillbirths that occur before the onset of labor are to be recorded separately from those that occur during labor and delivery, because the causes of death in these two periods differ widely. A recent Children's Bureau study<sup>2</sup> has shown that three-fifths of the stillborn infants died before labor and two-fifths during labor. Deaths before labor obviously are due to prenatal conditions; deaths during labor, to natal conditions. The causes of fetal deaths during labor are similar to the causes of death in the early neonatal period. Eighty-two percent of the neonatal deaths

in 1937 were assigned by the United States Bureau of the Census<sup>3</sup> to prenatal and natal causes.

The data for live-born infants who died before discharge from the hospital are to be recorded separately from the data for infants who were alive at time of discharge. For infants born alive who died in the hospital the tabulation is by age at death; for those alive at time of discharge from the hospital, by age at discharge. Infants admitted to the hospital after they were born are not to be included.

The classification by age is in five periods--under 1 day, 1-6 days, 7-13 days, 14-29 days, and 30 days and over. These age periods are important. In 1937, 27 percent of all infant deaths in the United States occurred on the first day of life, 18 percent from the first to the sixth day, 5 percent from the seventh to the thirteenth day, and 7 percent from the fourteenth to the twenty-ninth day. Altogether, 57 percent of the infant deaths occur in the first month of life; 43 percent, from the second to the eleventh month.<sup>3</sup>

For each hospital using this suggested form, information will be made available which will be comparable with information for other hospitals that use the form. The data supplied will make it possible to study the stillbirth and neonatal mortality rates in hospitals taking birth weight into account, and to study the age at death or age at discharge from the hospital of live-born infants.

This form is not designed to be used for detailed studies of stillbirths or neonatal deaths. For such studies the Children's Bureau has prepared special forms of which copies will be supplied on request.

<sup>3</sup>Source: Reports of the U. S. Bureau of the Census.

<sup>1</sup>If birth weight is recorded in pounds and ounces the U. S. Children's Bureau will furnish a table for conversion of pounds and ounces to grams.

<sup>2</sup>Dunham, Ethel C., M. D., et al: Problem of the Causes of Stillbirth. *American Journal of Public Health*, vol. 28, no. 4 (April 1938), pp. 491-498.







BOOK AND PERIODICAL NOTES  
(Maternal, Infant, and Child Health)

FIGHTING FOR LIFE, by S. Josephine Baker, M. D. Macmillan Co., New York. 1939. 264 pp. \$2.75.

In her autobiography Dr. Baker describes her work in the Department of Health of New York City-- inspecting school children, finding and providing care for sick babies, establishing the Division of Child Hygiene with its first project the saving of the lives of babies born in one slum district in the city, and the subsequent expansion of the division to the time of Dr. Baker's retirement, when it had an annual budget of more than \$1,000,000. She tells of her fight to make modified milk available to babies of the poor, the organization of the Little Mothers' Leagues, and her investigation of classroom ventilation. Through the whole book Dr. Baker emphasizes the need for preventive medicine, especially for the preschool child.

AUTOPSY FINDINGS IN STILLBIRTHS AND NEONATAL DEATHS, by John Wilkes Hammond, M. D. *Archives of Pediatrics*, vol. 56, no. 1 (January 1939), pp. 46-49.

The author selected for special study the postmortem records of 200 infants who were stillborn or died in the neonatal period. In every case the fetus was alive when labor began and the infant showed no significant congenital defects at postmortem examination. In order to obtain this series of 200 the author reviewed, in consecutive order, the autopsies of 461 stillborn or live-born infants in the records of the Woman's Hospital, New York. The 461 infants autopsied included 273 premature infants and 14 anencephalic monsters, but only 2 infants whose deaths were caused by sepsis, excluding the 8 cases of pneumonia.

Of the 200 cases in which the condition causing death arose in the natal or neonatal period, slightly more than half (107) were prematurely born infants. Of these about one-third (36) showed congestion and edema of the brain, 35 showed intracranial hemorrhage, and 22 showed no lesions. Of the 69 mature newborn infants nearly one-half (32) showed intracranial hemorrhage, and of the

24 postmature newborn infants more than half (13) showed intracranial hemorrhage and 3 showed intracranial congestion.

A STUDY OF THE INTELLIGENCE OF ANGLO-CHINESE CHILDREN, by P. C. Hu. *Eugenics Review*, vol. 30, no. 2 (July 1938), pp. 109-116.

This investigation was carried out with the object of determining the general intellectual level of Anglo-Chinese children and of discovering what differences, if any, exist between their general standard of intelligence and that of English children selected from the same social environment. A group of 2,943 English children and 116 Anglo-Chinese children in the East End of London and in Liverpool were given general intelligence tests and perceptual tests. The children were 8 to 14 years of age. In the majority of tests the Anglo-Chinese children excelled the English. An attempt is made to explain this difference on the grounds of the economic factor, racial tradition and heredity, possible influence of home environment, and the indirect effect of race prejudice.

THE CLINICAL TREATMENT OF THE PROBLEM CHILD, by Carl R. Rogers. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston. 1939. 393 pp.

The author is director of the Department of Child Study of the Rochester Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children and lecturer in psychology at the University of Rochester. From his experience in treating the behavior problems of children he has written this volume, rather as a summary of present knowledge than as a handbook of procedure in a field where many problems have only begun to be studied. The book is divided into three sections dealing with diagnosis, treatment by change of environment, and treatment by constructive modification of the child's own immediate conditions of life. The editor, Leonard Carmichael, regards it as a progress report, to be recommended to persons dealing with children's problems who can use the help that psychology is now able to give them.



## CHILD LABOR

### PUERTO RICO DECISION UPHOLDS RIGHT OF ILLEGALLY EMPLOYED MINORS TO COMPENSATION AWARDS

The *Puerto Rico Labor News*<sup>1</sup> tells the story of a 14-year-old boy, Ramon Luis Garcia Robles, injured while illegally employed, whose claim for compensation under the Insular Workmen's Compensation Act was finally upheld by the Supreme Court of Puerto Rico.

Undisputed facts, states the *Puerto Rico Labor News*, showed that Ramon's employer had not complied with the statute requiring a special permit to be obtained from the Department of Labor authorizing child labor under certain circumstances. The manager of the State Insurance Fund originally denied the boy's claim on the ground that the Workmen's Compensation Act of Puerto Rico does not cover illegally employed workmen. The case was appealed to the Industrial Commission, which reversed the insurance-fund manager's decision and awarded compensation.

The case was then taken to the Supreme Court of Puerto Rico, which, in July 1938, reversed the decision of the Industrial Commission, but later set aside its own judgment and granted a new hearing. On January 17, 1939, the Supreme Court reversed its previous decision and affirmed the decision given by the Industrial Commission, awarding compensation to the boy.

In its opinion, the Supreme Court of Puerto Rico pointed out that according to the publication, *The Illegally Employed Minor and the Workmen's Compensation Law* (Publication 214 of the United States Children's Bureau), there are 15 States<sup>2</sup> of the Union with workmen's compensation laws worded like that of Puerto Rico (that is, neither expressly including nor expressly excluding illegally employed minors), in 9 of which States

the illegally employed minor is included under the coverage of the workmen's compensation acts.

The decision of the Supreme Court of Puerto Rico stated in part:

The Workmen's Compensation Act of 1935 (Act No. 45, Session Laws, p. 250) states that "workman" or "employee" shall be understood to mean any person in the service of any individual, partnership, etc. It also provides that the words "workman" or "employee" include "every laborer employed in any manufacturing, commercial, or agricultural establishment or occupation by any natural or artificial person, for any compensation, and by the Insular Government or any of its dependencies, according to the purposes of this act."

By the above terms a child of 14, though employed without a permit, is a "workman" or "employee" under the act. The prohibition in section 8 of the Child Labor Act, supra, reads as follows:

That no child of 14 and under 16 years of age shall be employed, permitted, or suffered to work in, about, or in connection with any gainful occupation with the exception of domestic, . . . unless his employer procures and keeps on file and accessible to any officer, inspector, or other person authorized to enforce or aid in enforcing this act a permit to work during the school course, issued as hereinafter described. . .

It may be seen from the above provision that the requirement is to be fulfilled by the employer. No duty is placed upon the child. The implication from the wording of the section, furthermore, is that it is the employer who should not permit or suffer the child to work for him under such circumstances. Both the punishment and limitation are directed at the employer. . .

Weighing the hardship to injured children so employed, if forced to recur to the courts, against the burden upon the insurance system should they be protected, we [the Supreme Court of Puerto Rico] find the former to be the greater of the two. The employer can still be prosecuted under the Child Labor Act, and the number of accidents of this nature is so negligible that the effect on the State Insurance Fund or on the relative risk and responsibility of other employers in the same group may be disregarded.

If children of a permissible age of employment are injured they should be protected by the terms of the Workmen's Compensation Act, for they

<sup>1</sup>*Puerto Rico Labor News* (Boletín del Trabajo), Government of Puerto Rico, Department of Labor, San Juan, vol. 11, no. 1 (January-February 1939), pp. 13-14.

<sup>2</sup>Since this publication was issued, 2 of these 15 States have amended their workmen's compensation laws to provide for the payment of extra compensation in case of injury to minors illegally employed.

are just as much "workmen" under the act as adult labor. No distinction is made in the statute. The result of the omission of the employer should not be suffered by the child. Until the legislature expresses its intention to exclude illegally

employed minors from the protection of the compensation law, they should not be denied such protection.

For the above reasons, the decision of the Industrial Commission should be affirmed.

## NEWS NOTES

*Occupational studies by State offices of NYA* Recent additions to the growing series of occupational studies prepared

by State offices of the National Youth Administration under the general direction of the Division of Guidance and Placement, headed by Dr. Mary H.S. Hayes, are as follows:

Aircraft Manufacturing in California, by Edward G. Stoy and Frances W. Strong. National Youth Administration, State of California, San Francisco. 1939. Mimeographed. 69 pp., plus photographs. "With approximately 1,000 new aeronautical inventions per year, methods of construction are altered frequently and often radically. . . The present data are presented in nontechnical form and should be useful as reference material for occupational study classes in high schools and for out-of-school youths, vocational counselors, and employment interviewers."

Growing, Marketing, and Processing Corn, by Theodore Thomas. National Youth Administration for Nebraska, Lincoln. April 1939. 120 pp. This study

presents information on the present and future trends of corn growing, processing, and distributing, with simple narrative descriptions of the various types of work and workers involved.

*Poster available on Fair Labor Standards Act* A notice in poster form summarizing the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 is available for free distribution. Copies may be obtained from the Wage and Hour Division or from the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor, Washington, D. C.

The provisions of the act relate to minimum wages; hours of work; learners, apprentices, messengers, and handicapped workers; child labor; records; and penalties. Employers of workers engaged in interstate commerce or in the production of goods for interstate commerce are asked to keep copies of this notice posted where it can be read by workers in the plant.

## BOOK AND PERIODICAL NOTES (Child Labor)

PROTECTIVE LEGISLATION FOR SHOP AND OFFICE EMPLOYEES, by J. Hallsworth. Third edition revised. Oxford Press, Toronto. 1939. \$1.50.

The new edition of this book, which was first published in 1932 and was revised in 1935, has been brought up to date in the light of recent legislative changes in England, Wales, and Scotland. These new acts include three Shops Acts passed in 1936; the Factories Act of 1937; the Young Persons (Employment) Act of 1938; the Children and Young Persons (Scotland) Act of 1937; the Education Acts of 1936; and the Public Health Act of 1936.

A chapter on child and juvenile-labor laws summarizes the history of the regulation of child

employment in the United Kingdom exclusive of Northern Ireland, outlines present regulations, and gives statistics on child employment.

BOY TRANSIENCY IN AMERICA, by George E. Outland. Santa Barbara State College Press, Santa Barbara, Calif. 1939. 141 pp.

Fourteen articles dealing with boys wandering about in the United States, which have been written by the author over a period of 5 years, are here gathered in a single volume. One group of articles deals with education and educational backgrounds; a second group, with the work of the Federal Transient Service; and a third, with causal factors.

## SOCIALLY HANDICAPPED CHILDREN

### THE FUTURE OF THE JUVENILE COURT AS A CASE-WORK AGENCY<sup>1</sup>

BY ALICE SCOTT NUTT,  
ASSISTANT DIRECTOR, DELINQUENCY DIVISION, U. S. CHILDREN'S BUREAU

Before the subject of the future of the juvenile court as a case-work agency is taken up, two points should be made clear.

First, there is no single mold or pattern in which all juvenile courts are cast. In the United States there are almost 3,000 juvenile courts--insofar as legislation creates a court--no two of which are exactly alike. In fact, juvenile courts of this country represent all stages of development. Nor is any one court representative of a single stage; instead, many a court is the embodiment of several stages of development.

Second, an agency may use case-work skills without doing case work. Therefore it is not questioned whether the juvenile court shall use a socialized or case-work approach; that is granted. Rather, it is questioned whether the court shall undertake more or less prolonged treatment by means of case-work techniques.

It is unnecessary to discuss in detail the steps by which the juvenile court arrived at its present status. You are all familiar with its history. When the newly established juvenile court sought to carry out its objective of saving rather than punishing the child, it found that merely a separate court for children was not sufficient. Court procedures had to be revamped and modified and treatment services developed within the court administration or in close relation to it.

As Frederick A. Moran pointed out when he talked before a joint meeting of the National Conference of Social Work and the National Probation

Association in 1930,<sup>2</sup> before the juvenile court had proceeded very far in orienting itself in the task of dealing constructively with problems of delinquency, dependency, and neglect, it was given additional responsibilities. The early part of this century saw the enactment of protective measures for children, including the care of dependent children in their own homes at public expense. Because the juvenile court had developed certain social services as part of its organization, it rather naturally fell heir not only to these administrative functions but also to others.

Thus the court became, in the thought of many, the agency to which all unadjusted children or children needing care should be taken and the agency which should be directly responsible for the care and treatment of these children. In general, the court has certainly not resisted the tendency toward overloading it with these duties. In some instances the court itself actually sought additional duties. Frequently it has taken the point of view that as a public agency it could not refuse to accept any case which, by any stretch of the imagination, might be considered within its jurisdiction. We find it accepting the conduct problems of very young children. We find it making adjustments in many cases in which no official action is required, and in some instances dealing with unofficial cases which are only indirectly related to child welfare. We find the court performing police functions such as dealing with neighborhood quarrels, keeping order, and enforcing ordinances when children are involved.

<sup>1</sup>Speech given at a joint meeting of the National Conference of Social Work and the National Probation Association, Buffalo, N. Y., June 20, 1939.

<sup>2</sup>Moran, Frederick A.: *New Light on the Juvenile Court and Probation. Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work, 1930, pp. 70-80. Chicago, 1931.*



We find the court developing its own instruments for treatment, including the placing of children in foster homes. And as if all this were not enough, we find the court, because the community expects it, attempting to assume the task of leadership for the prevention and treatment of juvenile delinquency and for even broader aspects of child welfare.

It is scarcely necessary to analyze for this group what has been the result of this Topsy-like growth. As Judge Eastman pointed out to a regional conference of the Child Welfare League of America in 1935, once certain services were begun as part of the court work they were continued as a matter of course and gathered strength through precedent,<sup>3</sup> although the original reason for their initiation, namely the absence in the community of other agencies performing these services, often no longer existed. The court frequently came to consider itself and to be considered a social agency rather than a socialized court, although strangely enough it often held itself apart from the social agencies of the community, and its probation officers spoke of themselves as a group separate and distinct from other social workers.

Although the juvenile court now suffers from lack of adequately trained personnel, from heavy case loads, and from the too highly pitched hopes of its friends, certain movements may be observed which promise partial solution of some of these problems.

In a number of States a State agency has a supervisory or advisory relationship to juvenile courts and probation officers. The efforts of these agencies are directed toward securing the appointment of personnel on a merit basis and toward raising standards of practice in social investigations and probation supervision.

Some courts are trying to limit their intake by discouraging the filing of complaints for trivial incidents; by recognizing that cases of dependency and neglect need not be brought into court unless problems of custody or wilful neglect are involved; and by referring, at the point of application, cases in which the need is for the service of an agency other than the court.

<sup>3</sup>Eastman, Harry L.: *The Juvenile Court; its purpose and function*, p. 7. Child Welfare League of America, Inc. New York, 1935.

The growth of juvenile-aid or crime-prevention bureaus within police departments is evidence of recognition by the police of their responsibility in the field of delinquency: Responsibility for using a socialized approach to individuals in the performance of police duties and for being constantly alert to and enforcing laws and regulations relating to community conditions likely to be productive of delinquency.

Growing public interest in problems of delinquency and increased understanding of the relation of environmental factors to delinquency have stimulated efforts to throw an increasing amount of responsibility for the prevention of delinquency away from the court and back upon the community. Responsibility for leadership in this respect has been assumed in a number of communities by organizations combining lay and professional representation, such as councils of social agencies and coordinating councils.

Although these trends promise relief from lack of adequately equipped personnel, from overloading, and from the false expectancy of what the court should be able to accomplish, there yet remain definite limitations upon the functioning of the juvenile court as a case-work agency. Unquestionably, reason exists for the point of view which holds that although some courts have done case work and some courts have done case work with some children, the juvenile court, as it exists in most communities, has never been and is not now a case-work agency. Fundamental is the fact that no matter how socialized may be its procedure, how socially minded its judge, or how well trained its probation staff, the juvenile court still remains a court. Because it is a court certain concepts and attitudes with regard to it are held by the community, the child, and the court staff that hamper the smooth functioning of case-work processes.

The community, in no small degree, closely associates in its thinking the juvenile court with its concept of other courts, the criminal law, and punishment. This attitude may find expression in either of two ways. The community may look to the court to protect it from the child. It may exert pressure upon the court to act quickly and decisively to bring about compliance and conformity to what the community regards as socially acceptable behavior. It sees the delinquent child as



quite different from other children and believes him likely to continue so, and thereby handicaps the court in its effort at treatment. On the other hand, the community may hold that any contact with the court stigmatizes the child. It may therefore refrain from seeking court action until the situation has become such that there is little which the court or any agency can do.

To a much greater degree than in the case of the client of an administrative agency, either private or public, the child coming to the juvenile court does not come voluntarily. This in itself makes him suspicious of and resistant to treatment. He is likely also to have a feeling of guilt and an expectation of punishment which are often reinforced by earlier contacts with the police, who may have threatened to send him to court if he is caught again. Not infrequently the court itself may threaten him with commitment to a training school. The difficulty of arriving at a therapeutic relationship under such circumstances is obvious.

The judge and his staff are not free from the handicaps of the atmosphere of authority and may fall victims to it. Few juvenile-court judges give their entire time to that court. Many of them give the greater portion of their time to adult offenders. They must therefore constantly make the adjustment from the point of view of the criminal court to that of the juvenile court. The judge must guard against the effect that the possession of broad powers, such as are given the juvenile court, is likely to have on any human being, no matter how well balanced he may be. The probation officer, because he has the authority of the court behind him, must resist the temptation to take the easier road and try to achieve by compulsion what the nonauthoritarian agency must achieve by case-work methods. Someone has described probation as case work with the punch of the law behind it. Unfortunately there have been times when the punch rather than the case work has predominated.

The fact that the juvenile court is a court results in certain structural and functional difficulties. The head of the juvenile court is rarely a person trained in social work. Ordinarily he has received his professional training in the field of law. If the court is primarily a

judicial agency this arrangement is sound. If the court is primarily a case-work agency then it is not sound. In the latter contingency the work of those presumably expert in the case-work field is directed by an individual who is expert in another field. It might be argued that the head of a large agency needs to be primarily an administrator who knows how to use the services of experts rather than to be an expert in the field of the agency. However, the position of the judge in the court and his relation to the probation staff are unique in the social-work field. The judge of the juvenile court must give so much of his time to dealing directly with individual cases that often he has little time left for consideration of broad administrative policies. Furthermore, because both he and his staff deal with individual cases they may at times be in conflict as to procedure. This is in striking contrast to the situation in an administrative agency, in which the head gives the major part of his time to the formulation and direction of programs and policies, leaving the handling of individual cases to his staff. This division of responsibility tends to promote harmony in procedure.

Because it is a court, the juvenile court has certain functions entirely apart from case-work functions and a structure quite different from that of a nonjudicial agency. The court may use a socialized procedure, but because it is the offspring of the legal system this procedure is nevertheless a judicial one operating along legalistic lines. The handling of each official case in the juvenile court follows more or less a fixed routine--a petition is filed, an investigation made, decision reached as to the need for detention, witnesses summoned, a hearing held, and an order made. The probation or case work done is done under the direction of and within the framework of the law.

Several persons well known to this group have voiced their recognition of the limitations upon the development of the juvenile court as a case-work agency and also their belief that instead of continuing to broaden its function it should concentrate on a definite and fairly limited field. They have argued that the court should limit its intake to children in whose cases a real issue arises; that the judicial and case-work functions

of the court should be separated; and that the expansion of treatment services within the court administration should be opposed, and their development, specialization, and coordination in the educational and public-welfare system should be encouraged. For example, in her recently published book, "The Child and the State," Grace Abbott said, "It seems a safe conclusion to make on the basis of experience in the United States, that we should not continue to ask a judge to decide what should be done for children requiring not legal but psychiatric and social treatment. When compulsory commitment or removal from the home is necessary, under our traditions, a court instead of an administrative agency must decide the question. In this connection, however, it may be noted that in the Scandinavian countries, where juvenile courts have not been created, official child-welfare committees have for some years decided even such questions as removal from parental custody and commitment to institutions."<sup>4</sup> Dr. Thomas Eliot, in his address before the National Probation Association in 1937, said, "I do believe that the mixture of true judicial functions with case-work functions in the same agency is one source of confusion and lack of coordination, and that it is in danger of being perpetuated when it might be reduced."<sup>5</sup> He distinguished sharply between judicial functions and case-work functions of the juvenile court, taking the point of view (1) that functionally case-work services and treatment processes inside and outside the court administration have more in common than have the judicial services of the court and its case-work offices; (2) that social efficiency is promoted and motivation and attitudes are clarified when incongruous functions are not performed by a single agency; and (3) that essentially judicial functions are incongruous with functions of child care and treatment.

I find myself in complete agreement with the philosophy that the ultimate objective should be the separation of the judicial and case-work functions of the juvenile court, with the court retaining responsibility for the former and an

administrative social agency assuming responsibility for the latter. Under such a division of functions the cases of some children would be routed directly to social agencies, there being no need for judicial decision; the cases of others would be taken to court for judicial action and then transferred to social agencies for treatment. What then is the nature of the job to be assumed by the case-work agencies, and what are the practical possibilities of their assuming it at present or in the near future?

In the years that have passed since the first juvenile court was established, the concept of what constitutes case work for delinquent, dependent, and neglected children has undergone much change. Study of the problems presented by these children and their families has shown the interrelationship of delinquency, dependency, and neglect, not only with one another, but with the still larger problems of unadjusted family life, broken homes, and economic and political conditions. The delinquent, dependent, or neglected child cannot be dealt with as an independent, isolated bit of humanity. The seeds of his misconduct, social maladjustment, or neglect were sown in the inadequacies and insecurities of his family life and nurtured by the deficiencies of the community's provision for health, educational, recreational, and social services.

The needs of this child can be met only as comprehensive programs are developed which take into account the needs of all children; only as services are organized for family and child welfare which include material assistance to families, health services, social services, and provision for the child handicapped mentally or physically; and only as these services are brought into closer relationship with one another and with the other agencies in the community for the education, recreation, guidance, and general welfare of children. It is not enough that these services be available to the child who has already become delinquent, dependent, or neglected; they must be available and utilized for the child who is in danger of becoming so, long before the stage is reached at which court action is needed.

Since the establishment of the juvenile court there have come into existence many treatment services, both public and private. Among these are

<sup>4</sup>Abbott, Grace: *The Child and the State*, vol. 2, *The Dependent and the Delinquent Child, the Child of Unmarried Parents*, p. 338. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1938.

<sup>5</sup>Eliot, Thomas D.: *Case-Work Functions and Judicial Functions; their coordination*. Yearbook of the National Probation Association, 1937, pp. 252-266. New York.

medical, psychological, and psychiatric care, attendance and visiting-teacher service, group work, special classes and schools, foster-home placement, special institutions for children presenting conduct problems. These services can be utilized for many cases of predelinquency, for cases now being handled by the juvenile court without the exercise of its judicial functions, and for the treatment aspects of many of the cases that come to the court for judicial decision.

The most significant development, however, which indicates the possibility and probability of relieving the juvenile court of its case-work functions is the organization of local public administrative units for child care in which are being coordinated various social services for children. For a number of years, several States have had provision for such units, which are generally called public-welfare or child-welfare departments. Through the provisions of the Social Security Act for child-welfare services in rural areas, existing units have been strengthened or new ones established in these and additional States. By means of this type of organization it has been possible to bring together various kinds of specialized services and to employ well-qualified personnel to administer them.

In rural areas the activities of these departments have generally included case work for children in danger of becoming delinquent and children coming to the attention of the court, as part of an organized child-welfare program and the performance of administrative functions relating to the care and support of delinquent, dependent, and neglected children by local officials.

Recently I visited rural counties in several western States where I had an opportunity to observe some fine working relationships between juvenile courts and county departments of child welfare. These juvenile courts, many of which are entirely without social-work staff, are welcoming the services of children's workers. They ask for assistance in making adequate investigations, in planning constructive work with families before they are broken, and in caring for children in their own communities without commitment to correctional schools. In some counties all case-work services for the court are performed by the children's worker from the county department.

In urban areas the organization of public child-caring departments with broad and integrated services has proceeded more slowly than in rural areas. The desirability of setting up such departments, however, is being increasingly recognized, and several large urban centers have established them or are taking steps toward that end. Such departments will make available to the court facilities for the exercise of administrative social-work functions preceding or attendant upon the exercise of legal functions.

The tendency apparent in the legislation of the past few years is to empower these departments to accept for care, without court action, children whose primary need is for case-work services and support from public funds and about whose custody there is no controversy. In addition, the language of the acts creating these departments with respect to their responsibility toward neglected children is usually so general that socially minded interpretation and administration will make it possible for the department to perform protective services: services which--in the absence of other public agencies to investigate the complaints, do the necessary family rehabilitation, or plan for the care of the child--the court has had to assume. Increasingly, as children need no longer be brought to court in order to get specialized service, one finds parents, other individuals, schools, and even police officers referring the problems of children to these departments. Most encouraging is the fact that they are tending to refer them at an earlier stage than would be likely if they had to take them to court for official action.

All this indicates that it is quite possible to look forward to transferring the treatment or case-work functions now handled by the juvenile court to administrative agencies. The change will probably come slowly in some areas, very rapidly in others. In large cities the juvenile courts will probably continue to function for some time to come as they have in the past. The very complexity and multiplicity of the social-work organization in these cities will compel change to be slow-moving. In some cities the administrative agencies may be reluctant to accept this new responsibility and to develop their programs accordingly. In areas in which public-welfare and child-welfare services have hitherto been almost entirely

lacking, their development will inevitably mold and modify the juvenile-court structure. It is well enough that the change should be of an evolutionary rather than a revolutionary nature. It is important, however, that we keep in mind the ultimate goal so that as we strengthen existing services and develop new ones we assist rather than oppose the evolutionary process.

Finally, the juvenile court will take its rightful place in the community, not as the central agency around which is built the whole child-welfare program but as only one agency in the whole field of social organization. The court will nevertheless be an important agency with a place that only it can occupy and a function that only it can perform.

Even though the availability of treatment services in administrative agencies will make it possible for the juvenile court of the future to divest itself of case-work functions and to specialize in the judicial field, it will continue to have a close relation to the case-work field. Although not undertaking case-work treatment, it will

need to proceed on case-work principles and to use case-work skills. It will need social workers on its staff to make investigations of the type that are truly diagnostic. It will need to be familiar with the resources of the community, for while it will not administer services it will have the responsibility for selecting and utilizing services. It will on occasion be used as a tool in treatment since, as Judge Smyth so well illustrated in his discussion of "The Family in Court" before the National Probation Association last year,<sup>6</sup> exercise of the control and authority of the court may be a step in the case-work process. But primarily the court will be an agency for determining issues, for settling controversies, for deciding need for treatment and the agencies best able to meet that need. Judicial functions will be clarified, strengthened, and rendered more effective. Relieved of extraneous duties, the juvenile court will have a field in which it can and should be expert—and this is no mean task.

<sup>6</sup>Smyth, George W.: *The Family in Court*. Yearbook of the National Probation Association, 1938, pp. 53-65. New York.

#### BOOK AND PERIODICAL NOTES (Socially Handicapped Children)

DEFINING FAMILY CASE WORK SERVICES IN RELATION TO CLIENT APPLICATIONS: I. RELIEF AND RELIEF-GIVING, by Helaine A. Todd; II. DEFINING FUNCTION IN SPECIFIC CASES, by Harriet Guignon. Family Welfare Association of America, 130 East Twenty-second St., New York. 1938. 43 pp.

These are two theses presented to the faculty of the Pennsylvania School of Social Work. They contain illustrative case material with discussion of that material. Part I is focused on relief, the recipient of relief, and the attempt that is made in the first interview to reach a clear understanding of whether the need is primarily for relief or whether personal help is also desired and why under the circumstances relief can or cannot be granted. Part II shows how the function of the agency is defined to the relief recipient so that he can then decide whether he desires to use such service—a decision in which the agency also participates.

THE SUSTAINING TYPE OF CASE WORK: CASE PRESENTATIONS, I., by Beatrice H. Wajdyk; II., by Edna Astley and Ruth Davis. Family Welfare Association of America, 130 East Twenty-second St., New York. 1938. 61 pp.

This analysis of two family cases is of particular interest to child-welfare workers because of the problems presented by the children. These problems were not approached directly but instead treatment was focused on the mother through accepting her and her difficulties and helping her to gain insight into her problems.

THE HISTORY OF PUBLIC WELFARE IN NEW YORK STATE, 1609-1866, by David M. Schneider, Ph.D. University of Chicago Press, Chicago. 1938. 395 pp. \$3.

All fields of social work in New York State, financed or controlled by public agencies, whether



Federal, State, or local, are covered in this book. Developments in the field of private social work influencing public welfare are also discussed.

Child welfare and public education are discussed in connection with each of the chronological periods covered--the system of indenturing dependent children in the early Dutch period, the establishment of orphan asylums and free schools for poor children after the Revolution, and, finally, the growth of organizations for neglected and dependent children.

**THE ROAD UPWARD:** Three Hundred Years of Public Welfare in New York State, by David M. Schneider and Albert Deutsch. New York State Department of Social Welfare, Albany. 1939. 59 pp.

This is the first of a series of pamphlets on Social Welfare Today in New York to be issued by the New York State Department of Social Welfare.

In each period of the history of welfare work in New York State mention is made of work for children, beginning with the indenture of a group of orphans from the charitable institutions of the Netherlands in 1654.

## OF CURRENT INTEREST

*Children's Bureau publications recently issued*

*The Community Welfare Picture as Reflected in Health and Welfare Statistics in 29 Urban Areas, 1938, is the title of a report giving data from 29 of the areas cooperating with the Children's Bureau in the registration of social statistics (Washington, June 1939, 69 pp.; processed).*

The data cover total and per capita expenditures for family welfare and general dependency, care of children, leisure-time activities, hospital care, and other health services. Certain data on numbers and types of cases are presented

for the first two fields. The report also includes a discussion of sources of funds, auspices under which the reporting agencies operated, and size of reporting units.

Selected List of Publications (Children's Bureau, Washington, June 1, 1939, 20 pp.) includes Children's Bureau publications of recent issue and such older reports as are still of value because of unchanged conditions or lack of other material on the subjects treated.

Single copies of both these publications are available from the Children's Bureau on request.

### IMPORTANT

Under Postal Laws effective July 1, 1939, it is necessary to drop from the mailing list for *The Child*, *Monthly News Summary*, and *Social-Statistics Supplements* the names of all persons or organizations (except libraries) that do not request the Children's Bureau to continue to send them these publications.

A request blank is enclosed with this issue. To insure uninterrupted receipt of *The Child* and *Supplements*, please sign the blank and return it promptly to the Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington, D. C.



## CONFERENCE CALENDAR

- |                 |   |            |   |
|-----------------|---|------------|---|
| Aug. 6-11       | World Federation of Education Associations. Eighth biennial congress, Rio de Janeiro.   | Oct. 17-20 | American Public Health Association. Sixty-eighth annual meeting, Pittsburgh.  |
| Aug. 14-18      | National Medical Association. Forty-fifth annual convention, New York.  | Oct. 22-25 | International Society for Crippled Children and National Society for Crippled Children. Annual meeting, Dallas, Tex.  |
| Aug. 27-31      | American Dietetic Association. Annual meeting, Los Angeles.   | Oct. 23-29 | Better Parenthood Week. Sponsored by <i>Parents' Magazine</i> , 9 East Fortieth St., New York.  |
| Aug. 30-Sept. 2 | American Country Life Association. Pennsylvania State College, Pa.  | Oct. 26-28 | National Society for the Prevention of Blindness. Annual conference, Astor Hotel, New York. Permanent headquarters: 50 West Fiftieth St., New York.                                   |
| Sept. 11-15     | American Congress on Obstetrics and Gynecology, Cleveland. Sponsored by American Committee on Maternal Welfare. Fred L. Adair, M.D., Chairman.  | Nov. 16-18 | American Academy of Pediatrics. Annual meeting, Netherland Plaza Hotel, Cincinnati. Permanent headquarters: 636 Church St., Evanston, Ill.  |
| Oct. 9-13       | National Recreation Association. Twenty-fourth national recreation congress, Boston.  | Nov. 21-24 | Southern Medical Association. Thirty-third annual meeting, Municipal Auditorium, Memphis, Tenn. Permanent headquarters: Empire Building, Birmingham, Ala.                             |
| Oct. 9-14       | International Association for the Promotion of Child Welfare (Association Internationale pour la Protection de l'Enfance). Fourteenth session, Rome. Headquarters of the Association: Avenue de la Toison d'Or, 67, Brussels. | Dec. 4-8   | American Farm Bureau Federation. Twentieth anniversary meeting, with agricultural educational exhibit, Stevens Hotel, Chicago. General offices: 50 East Washington St., Chicago, Ill. |
| Oct. 12-19      | Eighth Pan American Child Congress. San José, Costa Rica. (See page 9.)   |            |   |
| Oct. 16-20      | National Safety Council. Twenty-eighth national safety congress, Atlantic City. Information: National Safety Council, 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago.   |            |   |

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